Research Spotlight

# Φ

# On the Usefulness of the Conspiracy Mentality Concept

## Roland Imhoff

Social and Legal Psychology, Johannes-Gutenberg-University Mainz, Germany

Abstract: The current commentary aims at defending the usefulness of the conspiracy mentality construct and emphasize its advantages over other ways to conceptualize and measure conspiracy beliefs. In contrast to specific conspiracy theories, items tapping into conspiracy mentality are typically not ideologically laden and are typically neither true nor false. They thus provide a purer measure of endorsing a conspiracy worldview – independent of ideological leaning or concerns of accuracy. Responding to Nera's complaint about a Black Box definition of conspiracy mentality, the current commentary argues that the current state of the literature goes beyond that. Far from defining conspiracy mentality only in terms of agreeing with specific conspiracy theories, scholars have postulated its constituents (e.g., anti-elitism) and established some associates (e.g., generalized distrust). Whether a more fine-grained approach to conspiracy mentality as a multi-faceted construct will provide more useful is to be conceptually argued and empirically demonstrated instead of merely claimed.

Keywords: conspiracy mentality, content contamination, latent variable, causation, psychological essentialism

In his research spotlight, Nera (2024, this issue) raises many crucial points that cannot be stressed enough. Most importantly, to move forward, the field of psychological research on conspiracy beliefs has to enhance its clarity, clean up its terminology, and move beyond surface correlations of only little psychological depths (e.g., believing that a virus does not exist correlates negatively with the readiness to take precautionary measures against catching it; Imhoff & Lamberty, 2020a). The past few years have witnessed an explosion of (predominantly, but not only psychological) research on conspiracy beliefs. As Nera rightfully criticizes, a lot of this research has not eliminated but contributed to a lack of clarity by carrying forward the normative baggage of defining conspiracy theories as inherently misguided, by relying on cross-sectional correlations when testing causal theories (van Prooijen & Imhoff, 2022), and by not differentiating between the endorsement of very specific conspiracy theories and a more generalized propensity to suspect such conspiracies, most frequently labeled "conspiracy mentality" (Imhoff et al., 2022).

The term "conspiracy mentality" has witnessed a remarkable rise in popularity over the past 10 years. Its introduction to the psychological literature is often attributed to Serge Moscovici (1987; although Michael Billig used it already in 1978 to characterize fascist worldviews; Billig, 1978), but only few scholars took up this thread, most of them from an angle of political science or sociology (Byford, 2011; Karaosmanoğlu, 2010; Lipschutz, 1998; Pipes, 1996; Sedek, 2005; Z. Wang, 2011). This changed when the concept was rejuvenated with the development of two scales roughly 10 years ago (Bruder et al., 2013; Imhoff & Bruder, 2014; for differences between Moscovici's original conceptualization from these more recent approaches, see Nera et al., 2021). Google Scholar now lists over 2000 publications using the term. Arguably, the concept owes its popularity to Goertzel's (1994) seminal and frequently replicated (Bruder et al., 2013; Swami et al., 2011) finding that the endorsement of highly specific conspiracy theories seems to form a coherent scale or cluster, leading many scholars to suspect a *g-factor* in conspiracy theory endorsement (even though few phrase it that way), a general propensity to suspect conspiracies behind events.

## Conspiracy Mentality and Belief in Specific Conspiracy Theories – A Chicken and Egg Problem?

Nera now criticizes this view as *intuitively suggesting* a unidirectional causal relation from conspiracy mentality as a general propensity to the endorsement of specific conspiracy theories. I beg to differ here – claiming a relatively stable propensity does not imply a unidirectional causal claim. Indeed, we can think of the relation between conspiracy mentality and specific conspiracy belief in both an inductive and a deductive way. The inductive perspective would imply that some people find very specific conspiracy theories highly plausible (for whatever reason)

and use these experiences of plausible conspiracy theories to induce a general rule that many (or most) events or phenomena can be explained by plots hatched in secret. Such a perspective allows for the interesting research question of the characteristics and situational context of such gateway conspiracy theories that initiate this process. From a deductive perspective, people have a certain belief about how the world operates in principle (e.g., most things are determined by secret plans of a few powerful agents) and use this belief as a schematic foil against which world events are interpreted. As we know from a plethora of research, humans have a strong tendency and a rich arsenal of instruments to engage in belief-consistent information processing (Oeberst & Imhoff, 2023). This perspective is well in line with the findings that conspiracy mentality is associated with the adoption of extremely novel conspiracy theories (emerging quickly after almost any event of at least intermediate relevance) but also completely fictitious ones (Imhoff & Lamberty, 2017; Meuer et al., 2021). Importantly, however, these two perspectives are not mutually exclusive, and both models of causation can be true: conspiracy mentality as an overgeneralization of specific beliefs and as an interpretative foil to make sense of (new) aspects of the world. Equally importantly, one of Nera's examples from genetics seems to imply that causation is restricted to deterministic causation, as he refutes the idea that a genetic predisposition that increases the risk for a condition given the presence of other circumstances has a causal impact. This is an overly narrow understanding of causation. Increasing the likelihood of developing a disease might not necessarily (deterministically) lead to developing this disease, but it is still a causal impact in the probabilistic sense, making it more likely to occur.

### The Ontology of Conspiracy Mentality

Despite the possibility of such a peaceful coexistence of the potential causal models (including additional ones where third variables like hyperactive agency detection - partially - cause both), there seems to be some uneasiness regarding the question of how to think about conspiracy mentality. Do we follow a reflective model whereby the endorsement of each specific conspiracy belief merely reflects the latent variable "conspiracy mentality" as frequently assumed for personality traits? Or do we construe the relation in the sense of a formative model whereby conspiracy mentality is the tendency to show this behavior (without any latent disposition)? This question also refers to causality, but not the one discussed above, where A (adopting a specific conspiracy theory) leads to B (harboring a generalized conspiracy worldview)

over time (or vice versa). Instead, it asks whether variations on the endorsement of specific conspiracy theories are caused by an entity that exists independent of this measurement (the realist position behind the reflective model) or whether conspiracy mentality is just the summary of our measurement that does not exist in the real world (the constructivist position better alignable with a formative model; Borsboom et al., 2003).

Here, I will defend the former position that – at least at the hypothetical level – people differ on their conspiracy mentality. The alternative position would render any generalization beyond a specific scale used problematic: If conspiracy mentality is just a summative characterization of the way participants responded to specific items, any different scale (or different subset of items) will form different *conspiracy mentalities*. This does not seem to be the way the field treats belief in conspiracy theories. Instead, most researchers seem to employ scales tapping into the endorsement of several specific conspiracy theories (that may change from study to study) or generic statements assumed to tap into the worldview behind it interchangeably (for a critique of treating the two approaches as identical, see Imhoff et al., 2022).

## **Generic Statements of Specific Theories?**

Starting from the hypotheses that people do differ in the extent to which they endorse the wide-spread existence of conspiracies, the question is how to best tap into these individual differences. Several authors have proposed to ask for agreement with several specific conspiracy theories and take the average agreement as the best indicator of the latent variable. As I will argue below, this approach incorporates the issue we have labeled contamination elsewhere (Imhoff et al., 2022). Psychometrically speaking, it introduces systematic construct-irrelevant variance if the chosen items are not perfectly balanced in terms of their truth value and their ideological leaning.

One aspect that deserves particular attention is the contamination of specific conspiracy belief with (low) truth value. Items tapping into conspiracy mentality, on the other hand, are not *prima facie* right or wrong but reflect different worldviews. While some authors have argued that it is a downside of the conspiracy mentality concept that it does not entail the "tendency to subscribe to normatively weak beliefs" (Sutton & Douglas, 2020; p. 121), I would argue that this is a strength. Only a subset of specific conspiracy theories are normatively implausible beliefs. Although arguably these are the ones most frequently studied and most resonant of lay understanding of the term, there are a number of conspiracy theories that have evidence in their favor: that the Nazis conspired to

annihilate European Jewry, that Mohammed Atta and other Al-Qaeda terrorists plotted in secret to fly passenger planes into the World Trade Center, or that a group of members of the Nixon administration secretly wiretapped and broke into the headquarters of the Democratic Party (see Imhoff & Lamberty, 2020b, for a thorough discussion). What these conspiracy theories have in common is that they are well accepted and there is good evidence for their accuracy. Nevertheless, believing in them suggests believing in secret coordination and cover-up. We would thus expect them to be associated with conspiracy mentality as well. On the flipside, the frequently reported association of conspiracy belief with low cognitive skills (Stasielowicz, 2022) or more intuitive and less analytic processing (Binnendyk & Pennycook, 2022) might just be an artifact of choosing implausible conspiracy theories as items.

As argued elsewhere (Imhoff et al., 2022), the same is true for ideological content contamination. Specific conspiracy theories are often tainted with such content contamination (e.g., expressing certain worldviews other than conspiracy mentality like rightwing, xenophobic, antitechnology, or anti-capitalist stands), and thus their correlation will be confounded by sources of variance other than conspiracy mentality. To a certain extent, this problem also arises when we tap into the general propensity to endorse conspiracy beliefs by averaging the agreement to a number of specific conspiracy theories (as done in other scales of conspiracist ideation; Brotherton et al., 2013). As long as the specific conspiracy theories are perfectly balanced with regard to sources of content contamination and truth value, these influences will get lost in aggregation. As soon as they are not, however, the composite score will have similar issues as single items tapping into specific beliefs. Thus, if we are interested in the latent variable behind endorsing conspiracy theories - and not the latent variable behind endorsing epistemically questionable or ideologically laden statements - measures of conspiracy mentality will prove more useful than the frequently employed (often mostly implausible) specific conspiracy theories.

## Is Conspiracy Mentality a Useful Concept?

Ultimately, this is the core criterion of whether a concept is valuable: whether it is useful. Claiming the usefulness of the concept is not the same as making a claim about its ontology. There is an argument to be made that all psychological constructs are instrumental fictions by definition – be it intelligence, neuroticism, attention, or conspiracy mentality – which renders a debate over whether conspiracy mentality *exists* unfruitful (on the

fiction of illusory essences, see Brick et al., 2022). More relevant than the issue of ontological existence is whether the concept provides a parsimonious way to describe regularity in human behavior. It is true that this systematicity has to go beyond empirically demonstrating an association of conspiracy mentality with specific conspiracy beliefs over and over again – and defining conspiracy mentality by this association (the *Black Box* argument decried by Nera). This indeed borders circularity or tautology.

While I agree with the notion that such a Black Box definition is not useful, I disagree that this is the state of current understanding of what conspiracy mentality is. We can - and should - characterize what individual differences in conspiracy mentality entail in other ways than making the connection to the endorsement of specific conspiracy theories and quite some research has done exactly that. Here, I would suggest to further differentiate what might be seen as constituents of a conspiracy mentality from its associates. Constituents (e.g., anti-elitism, distrust of authorities) seem to be an integral part of conspiracy mentality, as they are proximally implied by the very wording or items tapping into conspiracy mentality (e.g., "Those at the top do whatever they want"). Associates are less trivially related and provide the opportunity for open empirical questions about the relation to conspiracy mentality. Such more distal associates have been established by showing reliable correlations of conspiracy mentality with low general trust (Thielmann & Hilbig, 2023), also behaviorally (Meuer & Imhoff, 2021), a higher perceptual threshold to detect trustworthiness (Frenken & Imhoff, 2023), a bias to suspect negative intention and secret coordination, even behind mundane everyday events (Frenken & Imhoff, 2022), low epistemic trust in high-power sources (Imhoff et al., 2018), or feelings of isolation when refraining from internet use (Jetten et al., 2023). The finding that conspiracy mentality is more pronounced in cultural contexts that are plagued by corruption (Alper & Imhoff, 2023) may be an indicator that part of this construct taps into the sensitivity for valid cues to untransparent and illegitimate actions.

### **Future Directions**

It cannot be stressed enough, however, that more research is needed and that elucidating the antecedents of so remarkably stable individual differences (e.g., Imhoff & Bruder, 2014; H. Wang & Van Prooijen, 2023) in conspiracy mentality will prove a worthwhile endeavor. Why people end up in a radicalized worldview characterized by conspiracy beliefs and ready to use violent means to pursue one's goals (Imhoff et al., 2021) is a timely and socially relevant question. From a basic research perspective, however, there is no reason to restrict the inquiry to such *rabbit hole* dynamics. People fall on all sorts of places on a continuum ranging from absolute disagreement to absolute agreement with conspiracy mentality items, and while it is understandable and tempting to zoom in on why some people end on one of the ends of that spectrum, that will not be the whole story. A better understanding of any antecedent of virtually any position or dynamic within that spectrum will provide us with a better and more complete understanding of the phenomenon. In light of the high intermediate stability of conspiracy mentality scales (H. Wang & Van Prooijen, 2023), it seems worthwhile to direct our attention to sources of differences in earlier biographical phases, such as adolescence (Bertlich et al., 2023; Jolley et al., 2021).

Although these questions are still to be answered, it seems fair to attest that psychological research has begun to explore the nature of conspiracy mentality beyond circular trivialities. A second point of disagreement is the question on whether we should treat conspiracy mentality as a unidimensional or multifaceted construct. Nera (this issue) emphasized the conceptual heterogeneity of the items comprising conspiracy mentality scales and suggests that it might be better to construe it as multidimensional. In my perspective, the heterogeneity of the items is a feature, not a bug. Psychological constructs should span a certain breadth to incorporate different aspects. The fact that these heterogeneous items rank respondents in a similar order (e.g., in Latent Profile Analyses; Frenken & Imhoff, 2021) is much more telling than if less diverse items clustered together. To be clear, whether a concept is unidimensional or multidimensional should not be relegated to psychometric analyses but requires a conceptual decision. Clearly, there is no right or wrong here: By zooming in and trying to separate different aspects, one can come to a scale that will tap into distinct facets. The question is, is it useful?

Nera suggests at least implicitly that it would be useful to take a more fine-grained approach and tear distinct facets of conspiracy mentality apart. From my perspective, it is not self-evident that a more and more detailed granularity of concepts will prove useful. Let us entertain an analogy to classical personality constructs here: Logically, the propensity to speak with friends on the phone, to feel comfortable around strangers, and to go out frequently are independent. The fact that they do nevertheless cluster together is a strength (not a bug) of the extraversion concept. It even allows the prediction of extraverted behavior that is not part of any of the items. The same argument could be made for the case of conspiracy mentality. If distrusting the elites, suspecting agency where there is none and seeing the general population as gullible clusters together (although these could be logically orthogonal), that is a strength. If further dissecting the concept into subfacets, however, will help make substantially more accurate predictions or provide better explanations, it will prove useful. If the gain is marginal or entirely absent, parsimony should prevail.

## References

- Alper, S., & Imhoff, R. (2023). Suspecting foul play when it is objectively there: The association of political orientation with general and partisan conspiracy beliefs as a function of corruption levels. Social Psychological and Personality Science, 14(5), 610–620. https://doi.org/10.1177/19485506221113965
- Bertlich, T., Lamberty, P., & Imhoff, R. (2023). Verschwörungstheorien in der politischen Sozialisation Jugendlicher [Conspiracy theories in the political socialization of adolescents]. In R. Imhoff (Ed.), Die Psychologie der Verschwörungstheorien [The psychology of conspiracy theories] (pp. 41–66). Hogrefe.
- Billig, M. (1978). Fascists: A social psychological view of the National Front. Academic Press.
- Binnendyk, J., & Pennycook, G. (2022). Intuition, reason, and conspiracy beliefs. *Current Opinion in Psychology*, 47, Article 101387. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.copsyc.2022.101387
- Borsboom, D., Mellenbergh, G. J., & van Heerden, J. (2003). The theoretical status of latent variables. *Psychological Review*, 110(2), 203–219. https://doi.org/10.1037/0033-295X.110.2.203
- Brick, C., Hood, B., Ekroll V., & De-Wit, L. (2022). Illusory essences: A bias holding back theorizing in psychological science. *Per-spectives on Psychological Science*, 17(2), 491–506. https://doi. org/10.1177/1745691621991838
- Brotherton, R., French, C. C., & Pickering, A. D. (2013). Measuring belief in conspiracy theories: The generic conspiracist beliefs scale. *Frontiers in Psychology*, 4, Article 279. https://doi.org/10. 3389/fpsyg.2013.00279
- Bruder, M., Haffke, P., Neave, N., Nouripanah, N., & Imhoff, R. (2013). Measuring individual differences in generic beliefs in conspiracy theories across cultures: Conspiracy mentality questionnaire. *Frontiers in Psychology*, 4, Article 225. https://doi. org/10.3389/fpsyg.2013.00225
- Byford, J. (2011). Psychology and conspiracy theory. In J. Byford (Ed.), *Conspiracy theories: A critical introduction* (pp. 120–143). Palgrave Macmillan UK.
- Frenken, M., & Imhoff, R. (2021). A uniform conspiracy mindset or differentiated reactions to specific conspiracy beliefs? Evidence from latent profile analyses. *International Review of Social Psychology*, 34(1), Article 27. https://doi.org/10.5334/irsp.590
- Frenken, M., & Imhoff, R. (2023). Don't trust anybody: Conspiracy mentality and the detection of facial trustworthiness cues. *Applied Cognitive Psychology*, 37(2), 256–265. https://doi.org/10. 1002/acp.3955
- Frenken, M., & Imhoff, R. (2022). Malevolent intentions and secret coordination. Dissecting cognitive processes in conspiracy beliefs via diffusion modeling. *Journal of Experimental Social Psychology*, 103, Article 104383. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jesp.2022.104383
- Goertzel, T. (1994). Belief in conspiracy theories. *Political Psychology*, 15(4), 731–742. https://doi.org/10.1002/ejsp.2530
- Imhoff, R., Bertlich, T., & Frenken, M. (2022). Tearing apart the "evil" twins: A general conspiracy mentality is not the same as

- Imhoff, R., & Bruder, M. (2014). Speaking (un-)truth to power: Conspiracy mentality as a generalized political attitude. *European Journal of Personality*, 28(1), 25–43. https://doi.org/10. 1002/per.1930
- Imhoff, R., Dieterle, L., & Lamberty, P. (2021). Resolving the puzzle of conspiracy worldview and political activism: Belief in secret plots decreases normative but increases non-normative political engagement. Social Psychological and Personality Science, 12(1), 71–79. https://doi.org/10.1177/1948550619896491
- Imhoff, R., & Lamberty, P. (2017). Too special to be duped: Need for uniqueness motivates conspiracy beliefs. *European Journal of Social Psychology*, 47(6), 724–734. https://doi.org/10.1002/ejsp. 2265
- Imhoff, R., & Lamberty, P. (2020a). A bioweapon or a hoax? The link between distinct conspiracy beliefs about the Coronavirus disease (COVID-19) outbreak and pandemic behavior. Social Psychological and Personality Science, 11(8), 1110–1118. https:// doi.org/10.1177/1948550620934692
- Imhoff, R., & Lamberty, P. (2020b). Conspiracy beliefs as psychopolitical reactions to perceived power. In M. Butter, & P. Knight (Eds.), *Routledge handbook of conspiracy theories* (pp. 192–205). Routledge.
- Imhoff, R., Lamberty, P., & Klein, O. (2018). Using power as a negative cue: How conspiracy mentality affects epistemic trust in sources of historical knowledge. *Personality and Social Psychology Bulletin*, 44(9), 1364–1379. https://doi.org/10.1177/ 0146167218768779
- Jetten, J., Zhao, C., Álvarez, B., Kaempf, S., & Mols, F. (2023). Trying to unplug for 24 hours: Conspiracy mentality predicts social isolation and negative emotions when refraining from internet use. Advances Psychology, 1(1), 1–19. https://doi.org/10.56296/aip00003
- Jolley, D., Douglas, K. M., Skipper, Y., Thomas, E., & Cookson, D. (2021). Measuring adolescents' beliefs in conspiracy theories: Development and validation of the Adolescent Conspiracy Beliefs Questionnaire (ACBQ). *British Journal of Developmental Psychology*, 39(3), 499–520. https://doi.org/10.1111/bjdp.12368.
- Karaosmanoğlu, K. (2010). Reimagining minorities in Turkey: Before and after the AKP. *Insight Turkey*, *12*(2), 193–212.
- Lipschutz, R. D. (1998). From culture wars to shooting wars: Cultural conflict in the United States. In B. Crawford, & R. D. Lipschutz (Eds.), *The myth of "ethnic conflict": Politics, economics, and "cultural" violence* (pp. 394–433). University of California.
- Meuer, M., & Imhoff, R. (2021). Believing in hidden plots is associated with decreased behavioral trust: Conspiracy belief as greater sensitivity to social threat or insensitivity towards its absence? Journal of Experimental Social Psychology, 93, Article 104081. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jesp.2020.104081
- Meuer, M., Oeberst, A., Imhoff, R. (2021). Believe It or Not No support for an effect of providing explanatory or threat-related information on conspiracy theories' credibility. *International Review of Social Psychology*, 34(1), Article 6. https://doi.org/10. 5334/irsp.587
- Moscovici, S. (1987). The conspiracy mentality. In C. F. Graumann, & S. Moscovici (Eds.), *Changing conceptions of conspiracy* (pp. 151–169). Springer.
- Nera, K. (2024, this issue). Analysing the causation between conspiracy mentality and belief in conspiracy theories: Potential pitfalls and leads to address them. *Zeitschrift für Psychologie*, *232*(1), XX–XX. https://doi.org/10.1027/2151-2604/a000533
- Nera, K., Wagner-Egger, P., Bertin, P., Douglas, K. M., & Klein, O. (2021). A power-challenging theory of society, or a conservative mindset? Upward and downward conspiracy theories as

ideologically distinct beliefs. *European Journal of Social Psy-chology*, 51(4-5), 740–757. https://doi.org/10.1002/ejsp.2769

- Oeberst, A., & Imhoff, R. (2023). Towards parsimony in bias research. Proposing a common framework of belief-consistent information processing. *Perspectives on Psychological Science*, 18(6), 1464–1487. https://doi.org/10.1177/17456916221148147
- Pipes, D. (1996). *The hidden hand: Middle East fears of conspiracy*. Palgrave Macmillan.
- Sedek, G. (2005). Conspiracy stereotypes of Jews during systemic transformation in Poland. *International Journal of Sociology*, 35(1), 40–64. https://doi.org/10.1080/00207659.2005.11043142
- Stasielowicz, L. (2022). Who believes in conspiracy theories? A metaanalysis on personality correlates. *Journal of Research in Personality*, 98, Article 104229. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jrp.2022.104229
- Sutton, R. M., & Douglas, K. M. (2020). Conspiracy theories and the conspiracy mindset: Implications for political ideology. *Current Opinion in Behavioral Sciences*, 34, 118–122. https://doi.org/10. 1016/j.cobeha.2020.02.015
- Swami, V., Coles, R., Stieger, S., Pietschnig, J., Furnham, A., Rehim, S., & Voracek, M. (2011). Conspiracist ideation in Britain and Austria: Evidence of a monological belief system and associations between individual psychological differences and realworld and fictitious conspiracy theories. *British Journal of Psychology*, 102(3), 443–463. https://doi.org/10.1111/j.2044-8295. 2010.02004.x
- Thielmann, I., & Hilbig, B. E. (2023). Generalized dispositional distrust as the common core of populism and conspiracy mentality. *Political Psychology*, 44(4), 789–805. https://doi.org/ 10.1111/pops.12886
- van Prooijen, J. W., & Imhoff, R. (2022). The psychological study of conspiracy theories: Strengths and limitations. *Current Opinion in Psychology*, 48, Article 101465. https://doi.org/10.1016/j. copsyc.2022.101465
- Wang, H., & Van Prooijen, J.-W. (2023). Stolen elections: How conspiracy beliefs during the 2020 American presidential elections changed over time. *Applied Cognitive Psychology*, 37(2) 277–289. https://doi.org/10.1002/acp.3996
- Wang, Z. (2011). American conspiracy: Strategic suspicion and US re-engagement in Asia. Asia Policy, 12(1), 27–31.

#### History

Received September 7, 2023 Revision received November 15, 2023 Accepted November 15, 2023 Published online February 23, 2024

#### **Conflict of Interest**

The author declares no conflict of interest.

#### Funding

Open access publication enabled by the Johannes-Gutenberg-University Mainz.

#### ORCID

Roland Imhoff
https://orcid.org/0000-0003-0807-463X

#### **Roland Imhoff**

Social and Legal Psychology Johannes-Gutenberg-University Mainz Binger Str. 14-16 55122 Mainz Germany roland.imhoff@uni-mainz.de